

passions, committing theft, incest, and adultery, breathing hatred and revenge, it obscured the idea of uprightness, and rendered evil legitimate by the example of those who should have been the incarnation of good. Then when human reason contradicted the divine legends, Greek polytheism at last found itself in that fatal condition wherein religion and the moral code are opposed to each other. The latter attacked the former and won the battle. The gods fell from Olympus. Grass grew in the courtyards of the temples. This would have been a gain, if the dethroned deities had been replaced by such a virile system of instruction as would enlighten and purify human reason. That virile instruction was found here and there on the lips of the poets and philosophers, but the masses did not listen. Delivered to the grovelling superstitions in which among the weak the great beliefs end, Greek religion was without defence when assailed by the Asiatic corruption introduced by the conquests of Alexander. Gold depraved alike men and institutions. The mercenaries of the Seleucids and of the Ptolemies, men without a country inasmuch as without liberty, lost together with their manly virtues the generous self-devotion which had made them so great at Marathon and Thermopylae, and the self-respect and reverence for the true and the beautiful which had formed so many good citizens and created so many masterpieces. Greece from time to time did still produce some superior men, but only as a long-time fertile but exhausted soil yields at intervals a scanty fruit.

## HISTORY OF THE ROMANS

### I

#### ROME. THE ANCIENT ROMAN CONSTITUTION

(753-366)

**The Royal Period (753-510).**—The fertile plains of Latium and Etruria meet under the Sabine mountains on the banks of the Tiber, the largest stream of the Italian peninsula. At some distance from its junction with the Anio, this river flows between nine hills, two of which, Janiculus and Vaticanus, dominate the right bank, while the other seven distinguish the left. It was there that Rome arose.

Legend, which explains every beginning and delights in the marvellous, recognizes seven kings of Rome: Romulus, the son of Mars, nursed by a she-wolf, the founder upon the Palatine of the present city; Numa, the religious king, whom the nymph Egeria inspired; Tullus Hostilius, who overthrew Alba Longa after the combat between the Horatii and Curiatii; Ancus Martius, the founder of Ostia; Tarquinius Priscus, who perhaps owed his crown to an Etruscan conquest of Rome; Servius Tullius, the legislator; and lastly Tarquinius Superbus, the abominable tyrant whom the Romans expelled.

History, more sedate, has many doubts concerning this royal period of which the only glimpse is afforded by charming tales. Nevertheless it credits the foundation upon the Palatine of Roma Quadrata, a city whose walls have recently been discovered. This city exercised its robust youth against its Latin, Sabine and Etruscan neighbors, and grew so rapidly that Servius was obliged to erect those extensive walls which sufficed during the whole period

of the republic. It had customs, institutions and a political organization such as would require much time to develop. We must admit that under her last king Rome was already the capital of Latium, the strongest power in Italy. Her inhabitants constituted two peoples, as it were the patricians and the plebeians. The patricians consisted of families, each of which formed a clan with its own gods, its common property and its chief. The latter was at once high priest of the domestic altar, judge without appeal over his wife and children, patron whom his clients obeyed, absolute master of his slaves, and in the forum and at the curia a member of the sovereign people who elected the prince, enacted the laws and decided questions of peace and war. The plebeians were a confused mass of conquered captives, transported to the city, of foreigners settled there, and perhaps of natives dispossessed by the original conquest. They had nothing in common with the patricians, neither gods nor marriage nor political rights. Nevertheless to Servius is attributed the division: of the city into four quarters or urban tribes; of the territory into twenty-six cantons or rural tribes; of the people, patricians and plebeians, into five classes according to wealth, and into 193 hundreds or centuries. The first class alone had ninety-eight centuries. After the kings were expelled, as each century represented one vote, it had ninety-eight votes, while all the other classes combined had only ninety-five.

**The Republic. Consuls. Tribunes (510-493).** — The patricians overthrew Tarquin and replaced the king by two consuls, chosen annually by them from among themselves. This was therefore an aristocratic revolution. Brutus, one of the consuls, discovered that his sons were implicated in a conspiracy to recall the king. He ordered that they should be put to death and stoically witnessed their execution. Tarquin sought revenge by rousing all the neighboring peoples against Rome. The bloody victory of Lake Regillus saved the city, but her strength was undermined by debts incurred by the losses and expenses of the recent wars. The Roman law favored the creditors, who abused their rights, and the poor in resentment would not allow themselves to be enrolled. Then the senate created the dictatorship, an absolute magistracy from which there was no appeal. Its power, more arbitrary than that of the kings had ever been, was to last six months. The people were terrified and yielded, but

the violence of the creditors increased. At last the poor abandoned the city and retired to Mons Sacer. They came back only after tribunes had been promised them, who should be annually elected from the plebeians and by their veto could reverse the decisions of the consuls and senate. At first the tribunes employed their power as a shield wherewith to defend the people. Later on they used it to attack the nobles and make themselves masters of the republic.

**The Decemvirate and the Twelve Tables.** — The years which elapsed between the establishment of the tribuneship and that of the decemvirate were filled by petty wars and internal troubles. The tribune Terentillus Arsa in 461 demanded that a code, written and known to the citizens, should be drawn up. For a long time the patricians resisted. At last the proposition was passed, and decemvirs were elected with unlimited powers to draw up the new laws. One of them, Appius Claudius, tried to usurp the authority. He fell in consequence of an outrage, which forced a father to kill his daughter to save her from dishonor (449).

In the legislation of the Twelve Tables, published by the decemvirs (448), attacks upon property were cruelly punished. The thief might be killed with impunity at night and even during the day if he defended himself. "Whoever sets fire to a lot of grain shall be bound, beaten with rods and burned." "The insolvent debtor shall be sold or cut in pieces." For offences regarded as less grave, we find two systems of penalties in use among all barbarous peoples, the talion or corporal reprisals, and settlement by agreement. "Whoever breaks a limb shall pay three hundred Roman pounds to the injured person. If he does not settle with him, let him be subjected to the *lex talionis*."

However some provisions favored the plebeians. The rate of interest was diminished and guaranties for individual liberty were provided. "Let the false witness and the corrupt judge be hurled from the rock," said the law. "The people shall always have the right of appeal from the sentence of the magistrates. The people alone in their assemblies by centuries shall have the power to pronounce sentence of death." Thus criminal jurisdiction was bestowed upon the people. Thus the power passed to the *comitia centuriata*, where according to their property patricians and plebeians were mingled without distinction.

The general character of the law was another advantage for the plebeians. "No more personal laws." The civil legislation of the Twelve Tables recognized only Roman citizens. Its provisions were not made for one order or one class. Its formula was always "If any one," inasmuch as patrician and plebeian, senator and priest and laborer, were equal in its eyes. Thus, by ignoring differences formerly so profound, was proclaimed the definite union of the two peoples. It was a new people, all the citizens in a body, which now held sovereign authority and was the source of all power and all right. "Whatever the people shall ordain shall constitute the final law." Thus the people had attained through the Twelve Tables several material benefits, which may be summed up as civil equality. Not yet eligible to many offices, their political equality was still in the future.

**The Plebeians attain Admission to All Offices (448-286).** — The revolution of 510, instituted by the patricians, had benefited only the aristocracy. That of 448, instituted by the people, benefited only the people. The new consuls, Horatius and Valerius, forbade under pain of death that any magistracy without appeal should ever be created, gave the force of law to the plebiscites or votes passed in the assembly of the tribes, and repeated the anathema pronounced against any one who should attack the inviolability of the tribuneship. Nevertheless the prohibition of intermarriage and the occupation of all offices by the patricians still maintained an insulting distinction between the two orders. In 445 the tribune Canuleius demanded the abolition of the prohibition regarding marriage, and his colleagues demanded that plebeians should be eligible to the consulship. This was equivalent to demanding political equality. The patricians were indignant, but the people withdrew to the Janiculate Hill. The senate, thinking that custom would be stronger than law, accepted the proposition concerning intermarriage. Instead of granting the consulship to the plebeians, they diminished its functions. Two new magistrates, called censors, were appointed in 444, at first for five years and later for eighteen months. These officers were to take the census, administer the public domains and finances, regulate the classes, draw up the list of the senate and of the equestrian order, and have control of the city police. The other consular duties — military and

judicial administration, presidency of the assemblies and of the senate, and protection of the city and laws — were divided and intrusted to three, four, and sometimes six generals under the name of military tribunes.

The constitution of 444 made plebeians eligible to the military tribuneship, yet until the year 400 no plebeian attained it. Meanwhile Rome was carrying on a five years' siege of Veii, which the patrician Camillus finally captured. The Gallic invasion interrupted the political strife, that burst forth more fiercely after the danger was past. The tribunes, Licinius Stolo and Sextius, in 376, renewed the demand for division of the consulship, and proposed an agrarian law limiting to 500 acres the amount of land which a citizen could own. The crisis of the struggle had arrived. The same two tribunes were reelected for ten successive years. In vain did the senate persuade their colleagues to interpose their veto. Twice did they have recourse to the dictatorship. The dictator, Camillus, abdicated when threatened with a fine of 500 pounds. Against the tribunes the patricians invoked the sanctity of religion, for not a single plebeian was a priest. At last the patricians agreed that "instead of two custodians of the Sibylline books, ten shall be appointed, five of whom shall be plebeians." The year 366 beheld for the first time a plebeian consul. Then the patricians created the praetorship, an office exercising the judicial functions of the consuls. To this the plebeians became eligible in 337. The dictatorship was opened to them in 355, the censorship in 350, the proconsulship in 326, and the augurship in 302. Two additional laws assured political equality and founded that union at home and that strength abroad which enabled Rome to triumph over every obstacle. The one imposed the plebiscite equally on the two orders, and declared that both consuls might be plebeians. The other summarized and confirmed all the rights the plebeians had acquired.

## II.

## THE CONQUEST OF ITALY

(343-265)

**Capture of Rome by the Gauls (390).** — The capture of Veii, a great Etruscan city, made Rome preponderant in central Italy. The Gauls, established for two centuries in the valley of the Po, threatened to destroy the growing state at its centre. They besieged Clusium, which had refused them lands, and marched upon Rome. They defeated her armies on the banks of the Allia, and made their way to the foot of the Capitol, where the senate and the young men had shut themselves up. They maintained a close siege, until an invasion of the Veneti called them back to their own country, whereupon they consented to accept a ransom. As Camillus, on being appointed dictator, had destroyed some of their detachments, Roman vanity represented these petty successes as a complete victory.

It took Rome nearly half a century to recover. Meanwhile Camillus, Manlius Torquatus, and Valerius Corvus defeated several rebellious Latin tribes and their Gallic allies, and captured some of the Etruscan cities. They subjugated southern Etruria and most of Latium, and approached the Samnite borders. Then burst out the Samnite war, or the war of Italian independence. All the nations of the peninsula entered the lists in turn, always committing the fatal mistake of not attacking together. This war lasted seventy-eight years, desolated all central Italy, and placed the entire peninsula under the heel of Rome.

**The Samnite Wars.** — The wealthy city of Capua, being threatened by the Samnites, submitted to the Romans, who defeated her adversaries, but the hostile attitude of the Latins prevented them from following up their successes. The Latins demanded full political equality with the Romans. On the senate's refusal a difficult war began. In deference to discipline, Manlius Torquatus condemned



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to death his own son who had fought without orders, and Decius sacrificed himself to save the legions. Varying conditions, imposed on the Latin cities after the victory, assured their obedience.

In 327 the Samnites, to expel the Romans from Campania, incited the city of Palæopolis to revolt. Defeated by Papirius Cursor and Fabius Maximus, who commanded the Romans, the Samnites took their revenge at the Caudine Forks, where they surrounded the whole army, forced it to pass under the yoke, and to sign a humiliating treaty of peace. The senate repudiated the treaty and surrendered the consuls to the Samnites who were unwilling to receive them. Finally Publilius Philo penetrated victoriously into Samnium, while Papirius subdued Apulia on the farther side of the Samnite mountains. The senate endeavored to confine its formidable foes in the Apennines by a line of fortresses or military colonies.

The northern peoples of the peninsula now came to the aid of the Samnites. Fifty or sixty thousand Etruscans fell upon the Roman colony of Sutrium but were defeated by Fabius near Perugia. He systematically devastated Samnium till its exhausted tribes begged for an end of a war which had already lasted more than a generation. They retained their territory and the externals of independence, but agreed to recognize "the majesty of the Roman people." Circumstances were soon to show what the senate meant by this term.

The Samnites with the Sabines, Etruscans, Umbrians and Gauls rose in general revolt. At Rome the tribunals were closed. All able-bodied citizens were enrolled, and an army was raised, at least 90,000 strong. The massacre of a whole legion near Camerinum opened to the Senones the passage of the Apennines. Should they effect their junction with the Umbrians and Etruscans, the consular army was doomed. Fabius by a diversion recalled the Etruscans to the defence of their homes, and then hastened to encounter the Gauls in the plains of Sentinum. The shock was terrible. Seven thousand Romans had already perished on the left wing which was commanded by Decius, when the consul sacrificed himself, imitating the example of his father. The barbarians retreated in disorder and returned to their country. The destruction of a Samnite legion and the defeat of Pontius Herennius, the victor of the

Caudine Forks, finally wrung from this obstinate nation the confession of its defeat. A treaty, whose clauses are unknown, ranged them among the allies of Rome. To hold them in check Venusia was occupied by a powerful colony.

The centre of Italy thus submitted to the Roman supremacy or the Roman alliance. In the north the Etruscans were still hostile and the Gauls had forgotten their defeat at Sentinum. In the south Samnite bands wandered among the mountains of Calabria. The Lucanians were uneasy, and the Greeks with apprehension beheld the approach of the Roman rule. Tarentum especially manifested dissatisfaction. Still the union of so many peoples was impossible. The only real moment of serious danger was when the Etruscans once destroyed a Roman army. The senate replied by the utter extermination of the Senones. The Boii, another Gallic tribe, when endeavoring to avenge their brethren, were themselves crushed together with the Etruscans near Lake Vadimo (283). Northern like Central Italy then acknowledged the Roman sway.

**Pyrrhus.** — Tarentum alone held out in arms but realized her weakness too late. She summoned to her assistance Pyrrhus, king of Epirus. On arriving in that wealthy and luxurious city, Pyrrhus closed the baths and theatres and compelled the citizens to arm themselves. At the first battle near Heraclea the elephants, with which the Romans were unacquainted, threw their ranks into disorder. They left 15,000 men on the field, but Pyrrhus had lost 13,000. "Another such victory," he exclaimed, "and I shall return to Epirus without an army." He sent his minister Cineas to Rome to propose peace. "Let Pyrrhus first leave Italy," replied the aged Appius, "and then we will see about treating with him." Cineas was ordered to quit Rome that very day. "The senate," he said on his return, "seemed to me an assembly of kings."

Pyrrhus tried to surprise the city, but all its citizens were soldiers. He could only gaze at the walls from a distance. A second battle near Asculum, where a third Decius sacrificed himself, proved that he was only wearing out his forces in vain against this determined people. He crossed to Sicily to fight the Carthaginians who were besieging Syracuse. Though he raised the siege and drove the Africans back to Lilybæum, he soon wearied of this expedition and returned to Italy. A defeat at Beneventum drove the

royal adventurer back to Greece. Undertaking to conquer Macedon, he was proclaimed its king but perished miserably at the siege of Argos. Tarentum, thus abandoned, opened its gates (272). Græcia Magna, like northern and central Italy, was subdued.

**The Gauls.** — The Cisalpine Gauls still inspired a legitimate fear. Receiving the news that they had called for an army of their transalpine compatriots, the senate declared "emergency" and put on foot 700,000 soldiers, 500,000 of whom were furnished by the Italians. The victory of Telamon averted all danger and Marcellus slew their king with his own hand. Roman colonies, sent to the banks of the Po, overawed Cisalpine Gaul. The barbarians then implored the help of Hannibal but, satisfied to be delivered by his victories, did not themselves rise en masse to help him crush Rome. After the battle of Zama the senate again took measures against them. All the Boii emigrated, going in search of other habitations on the banks of the Danube, and thus delivered their rich country and the barriers of the Alps to the Romans.

## III

## THE PUNIC WARS

(264-146)

**First Punic War (264-241). Conquest of Sicily.** — Carthage, a colony of Tyre, had extended her sway from Numidia to the frontiers of Cyrenaica, organized an immense caravan traffic in the interior of Africa and seized the control of the western Mediterranean. While Rome was contending with the Etruscans and the Italian Greeks, the Carthaginians had applauded her successes and had signed friendly treaties. The absolute victory of Rome filled them with consternation. With alarm they beheld a single power ruling over the beautiful country which was bathed by the Tuscan, the Adriatic and the Ionian seas.

Sicily speedily became the cause of war between the two republics. Neither could abandon to a rival that splendid island which lies in the centre of the Mediterranean, touches Italy and looks out upon Africa. Carthage had been there long. Rome was invited thither by Mamertine mercenaries who had mastered Messina, which Hiero of Syracuse and the Carthaginians were besieging. The Romans delivered the city, defeated Hiero and imposed upon him a treaty to which he remained faithful for fifty years. Finally they expelled the Carthaginians from the interior of the island. The latter retained their seaports inasmuch as they were masters at sea. One fleet, constructed by the Romans and armed with powerful grappling irons, defeated the Carthaginian vessels in the first encounter. Another naval battle gained by Regulus at Ecnomus decided Rome to make a descent upon Africa. In a few months Carthage found herself reduced to her walls. The Lacedæmonian Xanthippus changed the aspect of affairs. After weakening Regulus by successive skirmishes, he defeated him in one great battle and destroyed his army. The war was again transferred to Sicily and

languished there for years. The victory of Metellus at Panormus revived the hopes of the Romans. Regulus was sent by Carthage to demand peace, which he exhorted the senate to refuse, and on his return is said to have been put to death with torture. But a great general had just arrived in Sicily, Hamilcar, the father of Hannibal. Fortifying himself at Eryx, he held the Romans in check for six years. Under these conditions the war might have dragged on many years longer, had not patriotism given to the senate a new fleet, that rendered the Romans supreme at sea. Hamilcar could not be provisioned. Carthage was compelled to end a ruinous war. She abandoned Sicily, restored all her prisoners without ransom and in the course of ten years paid 3200 Eubœan talents.

**War of the Mercenaries against Carthage (241-238).** — The soldiers of Carthage were not citizens but mercenaries. These mercenaries rebelled and for three years Carthaginian Africa was desolated by the Libyan war. Hamilcar delivered his country from this scourge, but fell under suspicion and was exiled to Spain, whose conquest he undertook. In a few years the whole country as far as the Ebro was subdued by him and his son-in-law Hasdrubal. Rome in alarm stopped their progress by a treaty which stipulated the liberty of Saguntum, a Græco-Latin city, south of the Ebro.

**Second Punic War (218-201).** — Hannibal, the son of Hamilcar, wishing at any cost to renew the war against the Romans, attacked and destroyed this town without waiting for orders from Carthage. With a carefully equipped army he crossed the Pyrenees, the Rhone and the Alps. This audacious expedition consumed half of his forces but brought him into the midst of his allies, the Cisalpine Gauls. The consul Scipio was first beaten near the Ticinus in a cavalry engagement. A more serious affair on the banks of the Trebia drove the Romans from Cisalpine Gaul. In the following year they lost in Etruria, near Lake Trasymenus, another sanguinary battle, and Hannibal was able to reach the centre and south of Italy. Thanks to the wise delay of the dictator Fabius several months passed without any fresh disaster. The awful battle of Cannæ, in 216, cost the legions 50,000 men. Capua with a part of southern Italy believed that the Romans were lost and renounced their allegiance. Rome was a marvel

of constancy. She abandoned offensive warfare, fortified the strongholds, and tried by a line of intrenched places to hem in the general who thus far had been so fortunate in battle. Before this circle was complete Hannibal quitted Campania.

Since Carthage sent him no assistance, he sought to rouse Sardinia, Sicily and Macedon. He summoned from Spain his brother Hasdrubal with a new army of Spaniards over the route which he himself had traced. But Sardinia was checked, rebellious Syracuse was taken by Marcellus despite the machines of Archimedes, and Philip of Macedon, vanquished on the banks of the Aôis and threatened through the wiles of Rome by many Greek peoples, could not bring his phalanxes to assist Hannibal.

While her enemy made these fruitless efforts, Rome armed twenty legions, pressed Hannibal harder every day in Apulia and Lucania and waged a fierce war against Capua, to make a terrible example of that city which had been the first to give the signal of defection. To save it Hannibal forced his way to the very walls of Rome, but as vainly as Pyrrhus. Capua fell and its entire population was sold into slavery. Only one hope was left to Hannibal. His brother Hasdrubal was bringing him 60,000 men. Met on the banks of the Metaurus by the two consuls, Hasdrubal perished there with his whole army. Nevertheless Hannibal held out five years longer in the recesses of Brutium, until Scipio forced him from Italy by besieging Carthage.

The two Scipios, Cneus and Cornelius, had been fighting for years in Spain. After brilliant successes they were overcome by superior forces and perished. Marcius, a young knight, saved the few survivors and confidence was already returning, when Publius Scipio, barely twenty-four years of age, the son of Cornelius, arrived to take command. At the very beginning he distinguished himself by a daring stroke in the surprise of Carthage, the arsenal of the Carthaginians in the peninsula. Aided by the Spaniards, whom his gentleness had won over, he defeated Hasdrubal, but allowed him to escape. Then he crossed to Africa where he persuaded the Numidian king, Syphax, to sign an alliance with Rome.

Being rewarded for his successes by the consulship, he resolved to attack Carthage itself. Despite the opposition of Fabius, whom such rashness appalled, he landed his

army in Africa. Though the Numidians on whom he counted failed him he routed all the armies sent against him and left Carthage, which he threatened with a siege, no other alternative than the recall of Hannibal. That unequalled general was himself defeated at his last battle at Zama. To his honor Scipio did not demand the extradition of Hannibal but imposed the following conditions: Carthage might retain her laws and her African possessions, but must give up the prisoners and deserters, must surrender all her ships except ten, also all her elephants, and was to tame no more elephants in future; she must make no war, even in Africa, without the consent of Rome, and must raise no foreign mercenary troops; she must pay 10,000 talents in fifty years, must indemnify Massinissa and recognize him as an ally. To Scipio were delivered 4000 prisoners, a large number of fugitives whom he crucified or beheaded, and 500 ships which he burned on the open sea. Carthage was disarmed. That she might never recover, Scipio placed at her side a relentless enemy in Massinissa whom he recognized as king of Numidia.

Returning to Rome Scipio received a magnificent triumph. He gained the name of Africanus and was offered the consulship and dictatorship for life. Thus Rome forgot her laws to honor her fortunate general. She offered Scipio what she was afterwards to allow Cæsar to take. Zama was not only the end of the second Punic War but also the beginning of universal conquest.

**Third Punic War (149-146). Destruction of Carthage.** — After Zama the existence of Carthage was only one long death agony. In 193 Massinissa robbed her of the rich territory of Emporia, a few years afterward of other large tracts of land, and finally of the whole province of Tysca with sixty-three cities. The Carthaginians complained to Rome, and the Romans promised justice; but Massinissa retained the disputed territory. Cato was sent as arbitrator. He was astonished and indignant at finding Carthage wealthy, populous and prosperous. Returning with hatred in his heart, he henceforth closed his speeches with the invariable words, "Furthermore, I think Carthage must be destroyed" (*Delenda est Carthago*).

One day Carthage resisted an attack of Massinissa. The senate denounced this violation of the treaty. The two consuls immediately disembarked in Africa with 80,000

men. They demanded the surrender of all the weapons and machines of war. Then, after receiving everything, they ordered the Carthaginians to abandon their city and settle ten miles inland. Grief and indignation inflamed the tumultuous people. Day and night they spent in making arms. Hasdrubal collected in his camp at Nopheris as many as 70,000 men. The Roman operations being unsuccessful, the consulate was given to Scipio Æmilianus, the second Africanus, though he had asked only the ædileship. He restored discipline to the army and increased the courage of the soldiers.

Carthage was built upon an isthmus. Cutting off this isthmus by a trench and wall he prevented sorties. To starve out the 700,000 inhabitants he closed the port by an immense dike. The Carthaginians cut a new passage through the rock toward the open sea. A fleet, built from the wreck of their houses, came near surprising the Roman galleys but was repulsed by Scipio. When the ravages of famine had weakened the defence, he forced a part of the walls and took the city. The citadel, Byrsa, still held out. Situated at the centre, it could be reached only through long, narrow streets, where the Carthaginians intrenched in their houses offered desperate resistance. It took six days and six nights for the army to reach the foot of the citadel. The garrison of 50,000 men surrendered on condition of saving their lives. At their head was Hasdrubal. His wife, after taunting her husband from the top of the wall for his cowardice, cut the throats of her two children and threw herself into the flames. Scipio abandoned the smoking ruins to pillage. Commissioners sent by the senate reduced the Carthaginian territory to a Roman province called Africa (146).

## IV

## FOREIGN CONQUESTS OF ROME

(229-129)

**Partial Conquest of Illyricum (229) and of Istria (221).**— Between the first and second Punic wars, Rome had obtained a foothold upon the Greek continent. The Adriatic was then infested by Illyrian pirates, and Teuta, the widow of their last king, had butchered two insolent Roman envoys. The senate despatched 200 ships and 20,000 legionaries under the two consuls, who forced Teuta to pay tribute and to cede a large part of Illyricum. On occupying Istria the Romans became masters of one of the gates of Italy and also planted themselves at the north of Macedon which they threatened from Illyricum.

**The Conquerors of Asia Minor, Macedon and Greece.**— The wars against Antiochus, Philip, Perseus and the Achæans have been already mentioned. Here we will merely make brief reference to the generals in command.

Scipio Asiaticus, the conqueror of Antiochus at Magnesia, was the brother of Scipio Africanus, who accompanied him as his lieutenant. On their return to Rome, the tribunes accused the two brothers of accepting bribes to grant peace to the king of Syria. Scipio Africanus indignantly refused to answer, and quitted Rome. Scipio Asiaticus, degraded by Cato from the equestrian order, was condemned to pay the sum he was accused of receiving. His poverty proved his innocence.

Titus Quintus Flaminius was the conqueror of Philip at Cyncephalæ and the founder of the Roman policy in Greece. He remained there a long time after his command expired, so as to organize a Roman party in all the cities and to expel the enemies of the senate. Thus he thwarted the patriotic plans of Philopœmen and brought about the rebellion of Messene which cost that great citizen his life. He also demanded from Prusias, king of Bithynia,